



Grassland expansions promoted global diversification of the *Pardosa* wolf spiders during the late Cenozoic (Araneae, Lycosidae)

Lijuan Liu^{1*}, Dan Fu^{1*}, Yufa Luo¹

1 Key Laboratory of Wetland Biodiversity of the Jianhu Basin of Shaoxing, School of Life and Environmental Sciences, Shaoxing University, Shaoxing 312000, China

https://zoobank.org/31218D24-E11F-4419-9AC5-027DEC73115E

Corresponding author: Yufa Luo (lyf223@126.com)

Academic editor: Danilo Harms ♦ Received 3 June 2024 ♦ Accepted 12 August 2024 ♦ Published 11 September 2024

Abstract

The spiders in the genus *Pardosa* C.L. Koch, 1847, are a young lineage of the family Lycosidae Sundevall, 1833, that exhibit high species diversity and widespread distribution. *Pardosa* is abundant in open and disturbed environments. In fact, most of its species live in grasslands, and the few that live in forests switched habitats relatively recently. The genus markedly prefers grasslands with a broad range of climates. Thus, its origin and diversification were probably associated with grassland expansions during the late Cenozoic. To test this hypothesis, we developed a global phylogenetic hypothesis that helps reconstruct the biogeographic patterns of the genus *Pardosa* using three nuclear (18S, ITS2, and H3) and four mitochondrial (12S, 16S, NADH1, and COI) loci. Our phylogenetic analyses cover 133 (125 described and 8 as yet undescribed) grassland species of *Pardosa* using *Trochosa ruricola* (De Geer, 1778) and Lycosa coelestis L. Koch, 1878, as outgroups. The results show that our selection of species in the genus is divided into four major clades: Clade I includes only *P. crassipalpis* Purcell, 1903, from South Africa; Clade II consists of a north-east African group (2 species) and a south-east Asian group (21 species); Clade III contains only *P. sutherlandi* (Gravely, 1924) from SE Asia; and Clade IV includes five species groups from Asia, Europe, and the Americas. The spiders of the genus probably originated in southern Africa or southern and eastern (SE) Asia at the Middle Miocene Climatic Optimum, about 19.40–14.18 Ma, and then expanded northwards to North America via the Bering Strait, as well as southwards to north-east Africa via the Arabian Peninsula, and westwards to Europe via western Asia between about 10.59 and 5.28 Ma. At least three exchanges occurred between North America and SE Asia, and at least two between Europe and North America. The biogeography of *Pardosa* in the past 14.18 Ma, associated with the evolution of grasses, suggested a late Cenozoic diversification of the genus as grasslands expanded.

Key Words

Biogeography, co-evolution, grasses, phylogenetics, species distribution

Introduction

Plants in the family Poaceae, usually called grasses, are composed of more than 12 thousand species (Govaerts et al. 2021). They originated during the late Cretaceous (about 100 million years ago, Ma; Gallaher et al. 2022) and currently cover over 25% of all land on Earth, com-

prising 35% of the subtropics and tropics. Grasses also occur in all terrestrial habitats with a broad range of climates, from cold to hot and arid to wet. Climate, soils, fire, and herbivory shaped global grassy systems, including the C3 and C4 photosynthesis groups (Linder et al. 2018; Schubert et al. 2019; Strömberg and Staver 2022). The C3 grasses developed the tolerance needed to survive

^{*} These authors contributed equally to this work.

in colder climates (Schubert et al. 2019); the C4 grasses, evolutionarily derived from the C3 grasses, can prosper in hot and dry areas (Linder et al. 2018). Grassy biomes (>20 Ma; Strömberg and Staver 2022), associated with open-canopy habitats, harbor many spiders of the family Lycosidae Sundevall, 1833 (wolf spiders; Piacentini and Ramírez 2019). They interact ecologically with a diverse part of the lycosid fauna, both above and below ground; genera with representatives occurring in grasslands include *Pardosa* C. L. Koch, 1847; *Lycosa* Latreille, 1804, *Trochosa* C. L. Koch, 1847; and *Hippasa* Simon, 1885. These lycosids rely on native grasses as a substrate to live on and to forage on grass-eating insects.

Based on the remarkable abundance of wolf spiders in open habitats and in the fossil record (Wunderlich 2004a), the retention of the third tarsal claw, and the conservative morphology, Jocqué and Alderweireldt (2005) proposed that Lycosidae had a relatively recent origin and had co-evolved with grasslands and, by extension, all types of open habitats. Recently, a dated phylogenetic analysis (Piacentini and Ramírez 2019) inferred that the family appeared before the expansion of grasslands and diversified (about 50 Ma) with the reduction of tropical forests and the advance of open habitats. However, the linkages between the temporal-spatial diversification of Lycosidae, especially its most diverse genus *Pardosa* (based on the number of described species), and grassland expansions have not been specifically tested.

Pardosa wolf spiders inhabit nearly all terrestrial habitats worldwide and currently comprise 532 species (World Spider Catalog 2024). They are free-roaming predators that can disperse over short distances; the spiderlings of some species have been reported to disperse by ballooning on silken threads (e.g., Richter 1970; Greenstone 1982). They are abundant in grasslands and all types of open habitats, such as wetlands, stream banks,

floodplains, glades, open deserts, farmlands, and human settlements (Jocqué and Alderweireldt 2005). The marked preference for grasslands contributed to their diversification and successful expansions when the arid and grasslands extended over the globe. Previous studies indicated that Pardosa diversified between about 14 and 10 Ma (Piacentini and Ramírez 2019), and most of its species are remarkably distributed in the four areas with different grassland environments and grassy (C3 and C4) evolutionary histories: (1) North America, NA; (2) eastern and southern Africa, EA; (3) central, eastern, and southern Asia, CA; and (4) the region surrounding the Mediterranean Sea, RM. (Fig. 1; Suppl. material 1: table S1; e.g., Vogel 1964, 1970, 2004; Hänggi et al. 1995; Ivanov et al. 2023). Therefore, *Pardosa* is a particularly appropriate animal group to test the hypothesis of a diversification of specific lycosid lineages as grasslands expanded. However, the genus lacks a comprehensive phylogenetic hypothesis, and thus its lineage compositions, phylogenetic relationships, and geographical distribution remain unclear.

Spiders of the genus *Pardosa* have been proposed as effective biological control agents for pests in agricultural systems globally. As the biodiversity and ecological prominence of Pardosa spiders are increasingly recognized, there is a demand for illumination of their biogeographical patterns and diversification mechanisms for the purposes of protection and ecological management. The purpose of this study was to produce a robust phylogenetic hypothesis to elucidate the relationship of Pardosa grassland lineages based on a global sample of species using three nuclear (18S, ITS2, and H3) and four mitochondrial (12S, 16S, NADHI, and COI) loci. Furthermore, we explored the origin, diversification timeline, and global expansion history using a dated phylogenetic tree and tested the co-evolution between Pardosa spiders and grasslands.

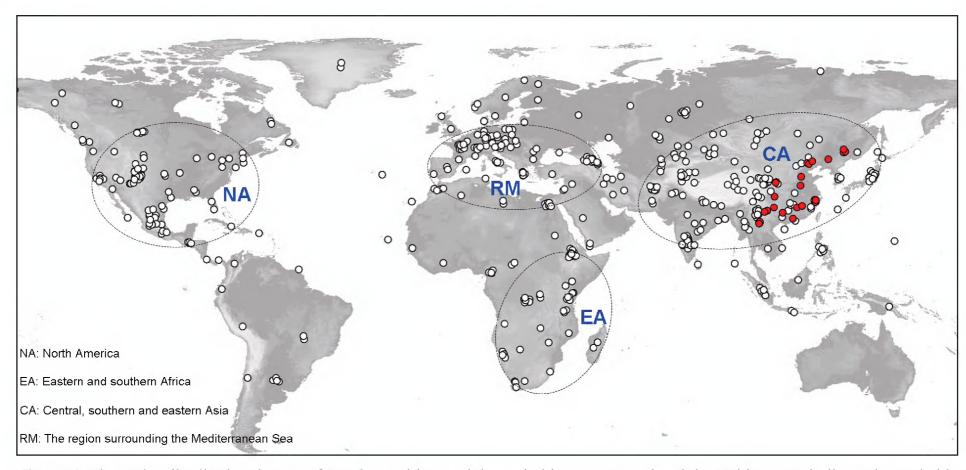


Figure 1. The major distributional areas of *Pardosa* spiders and the main biomes across the globe. White spots indicate the probable type localities of all known *Pardosa* species; red spots indicate the sample localities of *Pardosa* spiders sequenced in this study.

Materials and methods

Sampling and sequence analyses

We collected 27 Pardosa grassland species across China between 2018 and 2024 (Fig. 1; Suppl. material 1: table S1). They were fixed in absolute ethanol and stored at -20 °C prior to analysis. Voucher specimens were deposited at Shaoxing University, Shaoxing, China. TI-ANamp genomic DNA kits were used to extract DNA. Sequences of nuclear (18S, ITS2, and H3) and mitochondrial (12S, 16S, COI, and NADHI) loci were amplified using seven pairs of primers (Suppl. material 1: table S2). Sequencing was performed utilizing BigDye technology on an ABI 3730 automated sequencer (Applied Biosystems, Forter City, CA, USA). BioEdit (Hall 1999) and SEQUENCHER v4.1.2. (Gene Codes, USA) were applied to sequence quality checking and editing. New sequences were submitted to GenBank (Suppl. material 1: table S1). Additional sequences of the *Pardosa* grassland species from North America, Europe, East Asia, and Africa were taken from Zehethofer and Sturmbauer (1998), Muster and Berendonk (2006), Murphy et al. (2006), Piacentini and Ramírez (2019), and Roslin et al. (2022), as well as GenBank and BOLDSYSTEM (Suppl. material 1: table S1). Alignments of genes were generated using Clustal X (Jeanmougin et al. 1998). Sequences of the seven genes were merged to perform phylogenetic analyses, divergence time estimates, and biogeographical reconstructions. The data matrix will be submitted to the Dryad database (online at http://datadryad.org/).

Phylogenetic analyses

Phylogenetic relationships among the sampled *Pardosa* species were inferred using both the maximum likelihood and Bayesian inference approaches. The wolf spiders Trochosa ruricola (De Geer, 1778) and Lycosa coelestis L. Koch, 1878, were used as outgroups. Maximum likelihood analyses were implemented using the fast online phylogenetic tool W-IQ-TREE (Trifinopoulos et al. 2016). The optimal substitution model for each gene partition (TIM2+F+I+G4 for 12S, 16S, *NADH1*, and *COI*; K2P+I for 18S; K2P+R2 for H3; and K2P+I for ITS2) was estimated simultaneously using the greedy algorithm in ModelFinder (Kalyaanamoorthy et al. 2017) with the Bayesian information criterion and the FreeRate heterogeneity. We set the perturbation strength (p) and the number of iterations since the last best tree was found (c) to 0.3 and 1000, respectively. The SH-aLRT (Guindon et al. 2010) and the ultrafast bootstrap (UFBoot; Minh et al. 2013) were used to assess the support of the branching patterns estimated in the phylogeny with 0.99 of the minimum correlation coefficient and 1,000 of the maximum number of iterations. Bayesian analyses were performed with MrBayes 3.2.1. The best-fitting substitution models were selected by jModelTest under the Bayesian information criterion (Suppl. material 1: table S3; Posada 2008). The Markov Chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) chain was run for 150 million generations using parameters unlinked among partitions and sampled every 100 generations. We used Tracer v1.5 (Rambaut and Drummond 2009) to monitor the mixing of the MCMC chains. A burn-in sample of 375,000 trees was discarded, and a 50% majority rule consensus tree was computed with the remaining trees.

Divergence time estimation

An uncorrelated lognormal relaxed molecular clock model was used to estimate divergence time in BEAST v1.8.1 (Drummond and Rambaut 2007). The birth-death speciation process was chosen as the tree prior. Partitioned strategies (Brandley et al. 2005) were incorporated in BEAST analyses, and each gene was used as a separate partition. For each partition, the specific model of evolution was recommended by jModelTest (GTR+I+G for 12S, 16S, NADH1, and COI; HKY+G for 18S, ITS2, and H3). We ran the MCMC for 50 million generations and sampled every 1000 generations. The maximum clade credibility tree was computed using TreeAnnotator v1.8.0 based on the remaining trees, after discarding the first 25% of the yielded trees as burn-in. Tracer v1.5 was used to determine convergence and measure the effective sample size (>200) for all parameters. We dated the tree of all globally sampled *Pardosa* species. For the molecular clock analysis, we used the minimum ages based on fossils of Lycosidae (15 Ma; Iturralde-Vinent and MacPhee 1996; Penney 2001), Oxyopidae (43 Ma; Wunderlich 2004b; Magalhaes et al. 2020), Thomisidae (43 Ma; Wunderlich 2004c; Magalhaes et al. 2020), and Selenopidae (53 Ma; Penney 2006; Magalhaes et al. 2020) as calibration points (Suppl. material 1: table S4; Renner 2005; Donoghue and Benton 2007). The Agelenidae, Thomisidae, Oxyopidae, Psechridae, Trechaleidae, Selenopidae, and some Lycosidae species were used as outgroups. Their gene sequences were available from our study and GenBank (Suppl. material 1: table S1).

Biogeographical reconstruction

The biogeographical history of *Pardosa* was reconstructed in RASP v3.0 (Yu et al. 2010, 2015) using the Bayesian binary MCMC analysis (BBM; Sanmartín et al. 2001), the statistical dispersal-vicariance analysis (S-DIVA; Yu et al. 2010), and the dispersal-extinction-cladogenesis analysis (DEC; Ree and Smith 2008). We set two areas for the maximum number of ancestral states at each node. The fossil-calibrated trees obtained from BEAST analysis, from which the outgroups were trimmed, were used for biogeographic reconstruction. The distributional data of *Pardosa* species were available from previous literature, GenBank, and information from our samples. Based on the current distribution and the phylogeny of *Pardosa* as well as geographic divisions and climate, we defined five geographic

areas occupied by the genus: southern Africa, north-east Africa, West Asia+Europe/Palearctic, southern and eastern (SE) Asia/Orient, and North America/Nearctic.

Results

Phylogeny of Pardosa

The concatenated data set was composed of 2694 nucleotides (12S: 237 bp; 16S: 309 bp; 18S: 529 bp; *COI*: 611 bp; *H3*: 383 bp; ITS2: 195 bp; and *NADHI*: 530 bp)

with 133 (125 described and 8 as yet undescribed) terminals within the *Pardosa* grassland lineages covering most of their distribution ranges. Maximum likelihood analyses indicate that *Pardosa* consists of four clades (Fig. 2; Suppl. material 1: fig. S1). Clades I and III only include *P. crassipalpis* Purcell, 1903, from South Africa and *P. sutherlandi* (Gravely, 1924) from SE Asia, respectively; Clade II is composed of the north-east African group (*P. injucunda* (O. Pickard-Cambridge, 1876) and *P. naevia* (L. Koch, 1875)) and the SE Asian group (21 species); Clade IV contains five species groups from Asia, Europe, and the Americas. The *californica* group (CAG) and the

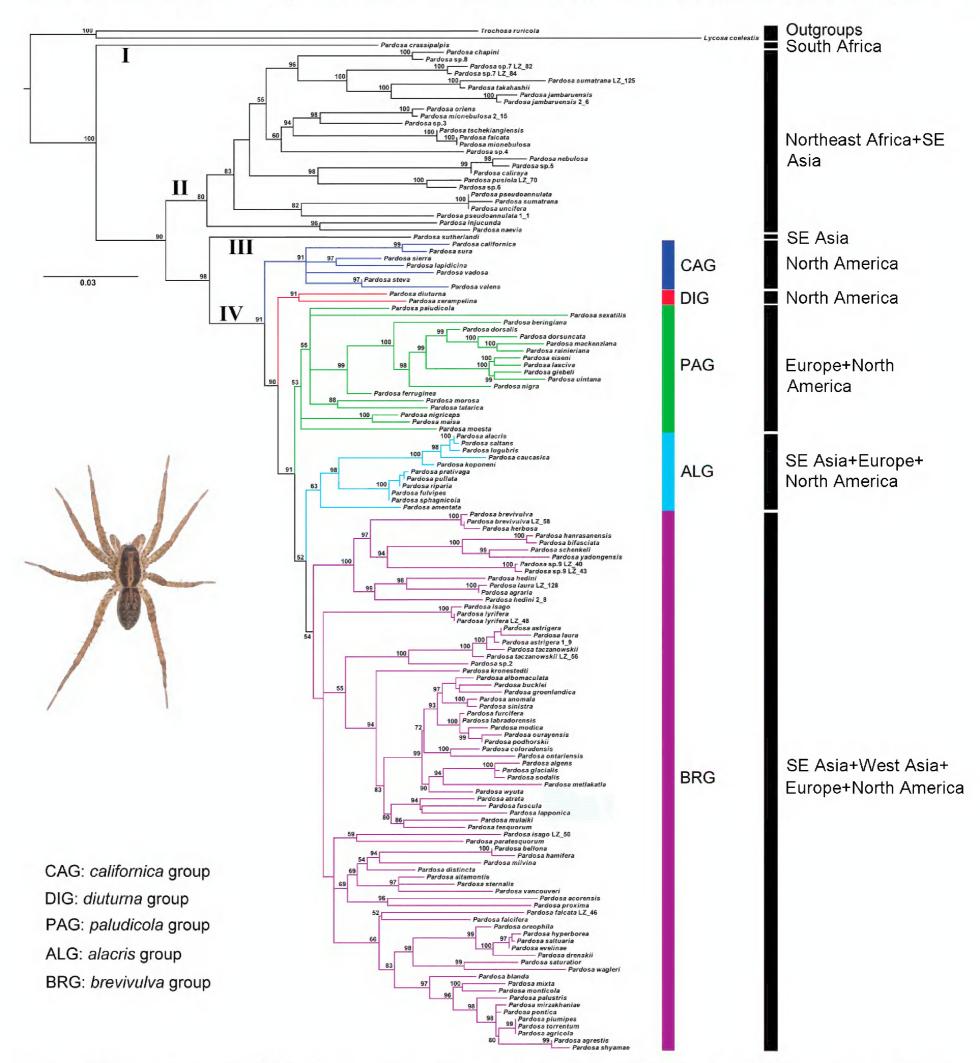


Figure 2. Phylogenetic tree of 133 *Pardosa* species reconstructed using the maximum likelihood method. The numbers at the nodes represent bootstrap support values from the maximum likelihood analyses.

diuturnal group (DIG) comprise 7 and 2 Pardosa species from North America, respectively; the paludicola group (PAG) is comprised of 18 species from Europe and North America; the alacris group (ALG) includes 11 species from SE Asia, Europe, and North America; and the brevivulva group (BRG) consists of 95 species from SE Asia, West Asia, Europe, and North America. Bayesian analyses suggest that all sampled African species (P. crassipalpis, P. injucunda, and P. naevia) constitute Clade I with a low posterior probability (only 0.62), and the phylogenetic relationships among most species/groups within Clade IV are unclear (Suppl. material 1: fig. S2).

Divergence time

The fossil-calibrated phylogeny is shown in Fig. 3. The recent ancestor of *Pardosa* probably appeared during the early Miocene, approximately 19.40 Ma (95% credibility interval, CI: 24.72–14.47 Ma). The divergence of the South African *P. crassipalpis* (Clade I) from the species of the clades (II–IV) was predicted to have occurred around 14.18 Ma (95% CI: 18.19–10.74 Ma). Thus, *Pardosa* wolf spiders originated probably at about 19.40–14.18 Ma (the Middle Miocene Climatic Optimum, MMCO). Within Clade II, the *Pardosa* species from north-east Africa diverged from those from SE Asia around 9.64 Ma. The split between the SE Asian P. sutherlandi (Clade III) and the taxa of Clade IV from Asia, Europe, and the Americas started about 12.59 Ma. Clade IV first diversified during the late Miocene, approximately 8.82 Ma (95% CI: 10.77–8.73 Ma), and then split into distinct species groups during the Miocene. The North American diuturna group (DIG) diverged from the nigriceps group (PABG) about 8.17 Ma. Diversification of the widespread species group (PABG) started around 7.77 Ma.

Biogeography

The BBM analysis (Fig. 4) inferred the two possible ancestral ranges occurring during the middle Miocene for Pardosa: (1) southern Africa (the marginal probability, MP: 0.6616); and (2) SE Asia/Orient (MP: 0.2391). The inference from S-DIVA (Suppl. material 1: fig. S3a) favored southern Africa+SE Asia (MP: 0.6534), SE Asia+north-east Africa (MP: 0.2066), and southern Africa+North America/Nearctic (MP: 0.0586) as the most likely ancestral areas of the genus, whereas southern Africa+SE Asia was preferred under DEC (Suppl. material 1: fig. S3b). The evolutionary routes of *Pardosa* inferred from the BBM (Fig. 4), S-DIVA (Suppl. material 1: fig. S3a), and DEC (Suppl. material 1: fig. S3b) were generally concordant. The ancestral reconstructions suggest that SE Asia is an important dispersal center for *Pardosa*, with dispersal from SE Asia to North America, northeast Africa, and Europe at around 10.59, 9.64, and 5.28 Ma, respectively. The three intercolonial evens between South-east Asia and North America were observed during the period of about 10.59–5.31 Ma. The inter-colony dispersal between Europe and North America occurred between 5.48 and 2.80 Ma.

Discussion

A detailed exploration of the evolutionary history of *Par*dosa requires a robust phylogenetic framework (Graybeal 1998; Zwickl and Hillis 2002). Current knowledge of the evolutionary relationships among *Pardosa* species is based on assessments of morphological similarity or phylogenetic analyses of lycosids, including very few species of *Pardosa* (e.g., Zehethofer and Sturmbauer 1998; Vink et al. 2002; Muster and Berendonk 2006; Murphy et al. 2006; Piacentini and Ramírez 2019; Roslin et al. 2022). This study first comprehensively addresses the phylogeny of global grassland species of *Pardosa* using multiple nuclear and mitochondrial markers. The topology of the maximum likelihood tree (Fig. 2) is similar to that of the dated tree (Fig. 3) and provides a well-supported hypothesis for the relationships among the major clades/groups of *Pardosa* within our dataset. The biogeographic histories of *Pardosa* suggest that the evolution of this genus was strongly affected by grassland expansions resulting from historic climatic and environmental shifts. These findings mirror other studies highlighting the vital role of the evolution of grasslands in lycosid biogeography (Jocqué and Alderweireldt 2005; Piacentini and Ramírez 2019).

Lycosidae appeared about 33.80 Ma, after the Eocene-Oligocene extinction event, but well before the grassland expansions. *Pardosa* (Pardosinae) diverged from the clade (*Lycosa+Trochosa*) around 19.40 Ma, which is consistent with the age (25–16 Ma) obtained in the phylogenetic analysis of Piacentini and Ramírez (2019). The initial diversification of *Pardosa* spiders was about 14.18 Ma, coinciding with the Middle Miocene Climatic Optimum (17–14 Ma). The time (19.40– 14.18 Ma) when *Pardosa* appeared is much later than the original age (55 Ma; Strömberg 2011) of C4 grasses with the hot and dry tolerance (Linder et al. 2018), and the age (30 Ma) when in colder climates, C3 open-habitat grasses developed the tolerance needed to survive frosts (Schubert et al. 2019), but coincides with the time (the late Cenozoic) when open-habitat grasses began to become ecologically dominant (Strömberg and Staver 2022). Four major clades of *Pardosa* emerged during the middle to late Miocene, between 14.81 and 8.82 Ma. This pattern coincides with the rapid expansion of open-habitat grasses and the retreat of tropical forests due to the cooling and aridification climate and the low CO, conditions, as well as fire and herbivory activities after the MMCO (Zachos et al. 2001; Strömberg and Staver 2022). Our results support the idea that Pardosa is a young lineage of wolf spiders that became vagrant and diversified during the Miocene, when the grasslands expanded. In the past 8 Ma, including the

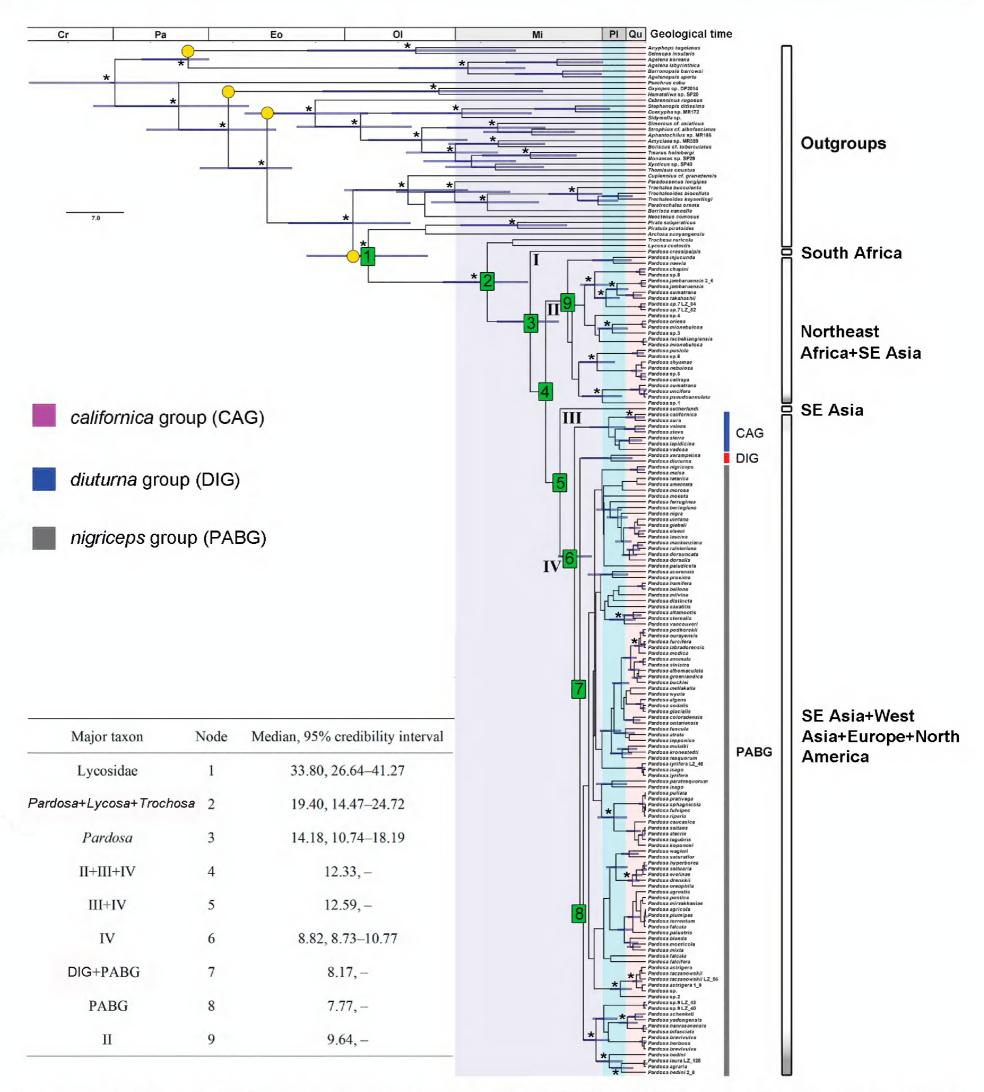


Figure 3. A dated, fossil-calibrated phylogeny of *Pardosa* species estimated in BEAST. Yellow dots mark the four fossil calibration nodes. "*" indicates stable branches with Bayesian support >0.90. Ma, millions of years ago. Qu, Quaternary; Pl, Pliocene; Mi, Miocene; Ol, Oligocene; Eo, Eocene; Pa, Palaeocene; Cr, Cretaceous; Ju, Jurassic.

global Ice Age (2.6 Ma onward), climatic cooling further accelerated, and grasslands extended as the forests retreated and the open and arid environments expanded. At this time, *Pardosa* spiders rapidly diversified, currently representing the most abundant lycosid genus and being dominant in grasslands and some open environments.

Our ancestral reconstructions suggested that the *Pardosa* spiders originated in southern Africa or SE Asia/

Orient during the middle Miocene, likely evolving concurrently with the spread of grasses and the diversification of herbivores (~17 Ma; Charles-Dominique et al. 2016; Strömberg and Staver 2022), followed by the geographic expansions from middle altitudes of SE Asia to high altitudes, and then to North America via the Bering Strait, as well as to north-east Africa southwards via the Arabian Peninsula, and to Europe westwards via West Asia between about 10.59 and 5.28 Ma. This dispersal

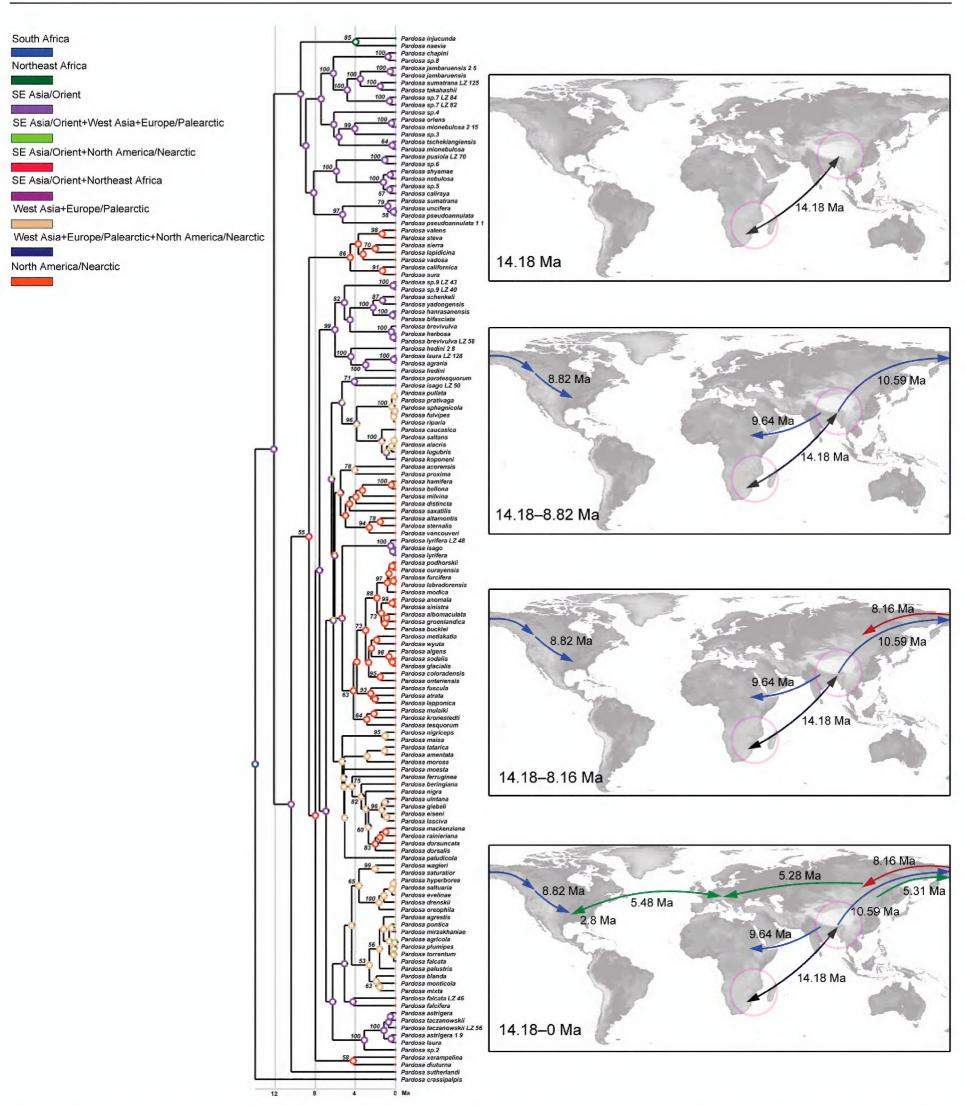


Figure 4. Biogeography of *Pardosa* and potential global dispersion routes (arrows). Reconstruction using Bayesian binary MCMC (BBM) in RASP v3.0. The colors of pie wedges at each node represent geographical areas inferred to have been occupied by ancestral taxa. Pink circles in the maps indicate the possible ancestral ranges occurring during the middle Miocene for *Pardosa*. The numbers at the nodes represent support.

pattern is likely associated with the continent-specific trajectories of grasses (Karp et al. 2021; Kukla et al. 2022). For example, the subtropical C3 open-habitat grasses first spread to the colder regions (Kukla et al. 2022). In the time (about 10–6 Ma), the tropical open-habitat C4 grasses expanded to form grasslands and savannas at low to mid-latitudes (Karp et al. 2021; Lu et al. 2020), and the frost-tolerant grasses spread to higher latitudes.

During around 10.59 to 5.31 Ma, multiple exchanges (at least three times) for the spiders occurred between North America and South-east Asia. The *Pardosa* exchanges also appeared between Europe and North America during around 5.48 to 2.80 Ma. These results indicated that intercolony dispersals were associated with grassland extensions and retreats resulting from climatic shifts such as historical glaciations.

The strong dispersal capacity and adaptability to complex climates and disturbed environments (Richter 1970; Greenstone 1982; Samu and Szinetár 2002; Jocqué and Alderweireldt 2005; Woolley et al. 2016) led to a world-wide distribution of *Pardosa* spiders that were dominant in open habitats within only about 15 Ma. Frequent ballooning and cursorial dispersal confer their high mobility and area expansion (e.g., Richter 1970; Greenstone 1982). Our findings indicate that the long-distance overwater dispersal and subsequent range expansions of Pardosa spiders occurred between South-east Asia and southern Africa and between North America and Europe. Furthermore, the marked preference of *Pardosa* wolf spiders for disturbed habitats, such as clearings in grasslands or forested areas (Jocqué and Alderweireldt 2005), made them especially successful when arid and open habitats, including grasslands, extended over the globe during the late Cenozoic.

Future directions

This study generated hypotheses regarding the origin and dispersal of *Pardosa* grassland lineages and suggested that grassland expansions drove its global diversification during the late Cenozoic using the nuclear 18S, ITS2, and *H3* and mitochondrial 12S, 16S, *COI*, and *NADH1* loci. Sampling is the process of choosing a subset of a target lineage that will serve as its representative. In this paper, the total sampling specimens for grassland species and some regions are on the low side. However, we hope our study can aid in strategic resampling, reflecting known lineage divergences from grasslands. Moreover, the taxonomic revisions of *Pardosa* need to be made in advance.

Acknowledgements

The manuscript benefited greatly from comments by Danilo Harms (Hamburg, Germany), Volker W. Framenau (Balcatta, Western Australia, Australia), Yanfeng Tong (Shen-yang, China), and one anonymous referee. We thank Ying Cheng and Haodong Chen (Shao-xing, China) for their help in collecting the materials. This study was supported by the National Natural Sciences Foundation of China (NSFC-32170463, 31860602, 31660611) and the Zhejiang Provincial Natural Science Foundation of China (LTGN24C140006).

References

Brandley MC, Schmitz A, Reeder TW (2005) Partitioned Bayesian analyses, partition choice and the phylogenetic relationships of scincid lizards. Systematic Biology 54: 373–390. https://doi.org/10.1080/10635150590946808

- Charles-Dominique T, Davies TJ, Hempson GP, Bond WJ (2016) Spiny plants, mammal browsers, and the origin of African savannas. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences 113: E5572. https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.1607493113
- Donoghue PCJ, Benton MJ (2007) Rocks and clocks: calibrating the tree of life using fossils and molecules. Trends in Ecology and Evolution 22: 424–431. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tree.2007.05.005
- Drummond AJ, Rambaut A (2007) Beast: Bayesian evolutionary analysis by sampling trees. BMC Evolution Biology 7: 214–221. https://doi.org/10.1186/1471-2148-7-214
- Gallaher TJ, Peterson PM, Soreng RJ (2022) Grasses through space and time: An overview of the biogeographical and macroevolutionary history of Poaceae. Journal of Systematics and Evolution 60: 522–569. https://doi.org/10.1111/jse.12857
- Govaerts R, Nic Lughadha E, Black N, Turner R, Paton A (2021) The world checklist of vascular plants, a continuously updated resource for exploring global plant diversity. Scientific Data 8: 215. https://doi.org/10.1038/s41597-021-00997-6
- Graybeal A (1998) Is it better to add taxa or characters to a difficult phylogenetic problem? Systematic Biology 47(1): 9–17. https://doi.org/10.1080/106351598260996
- Greenstone MH (1982) Ballooning frequency and habitat predictability in two wolf spider species (Lycosidae, *Pardosa*). The Florida Entomologist 65: 83–89. https://doi.org/10.2307/3494147
- Guindon S, Dufayard JF, Lefort V, Anisimova M, Hordijk W, Gascuel O (2010) New algorithms and methods to estimate maximum-likelihood phylogenies: assessing the performance of PhyML 3.0. Systematic Biology 59: 307–321. https://doi.org/10.1093/sysbio/syq010
- Hall TA (1999) BioEdit: a user-friendly biological sequence alignment editor and analysis program for windows 95/98/NT. Nucleic Acids Symposium Series 41: 95–98. https://doi.org/10.1021/bk-1999-0734.ch008
- Hänggi A, Stöckli E, Nentwig W (1995) Lebensräume mitteleuropäischer Spinnen. Charakterisierung der Lebensräume der häufigsten Spinnenarten Mitteleuropas und der mit diesen vergesellschafteten Arten. Neuchâtel: Centre suisse de cartographie de la faune (= Miscnea faun. helvet.) 4: 1–460.
- Iturralde-Vinent MA, MacPhee RDE (1996) Age and paleogeographical origin of dominican amber. Science 273: 1850–1852. https://doi.org/10.1126/science.273.5283.1850
- Ivanov V, Blagoev G, Danflous S, Gajdoš P, Høye TT, Lee KM, Marusik Y, Mielec CL, Muster C, Pétillon J, Spelda J, Mutanen M, Esposito L (2023) Across mountains and ocean: species delimitation and historical connectivity in Holarctic and Arctic-Alpine wolf spiders (Lycosidae, *Pardosa*). Insect Systematics and Diversity 7(5): 1–14. https://doi.org/10.1093/isd/ixad018
- Jeanmougin F, Thompson JD, Gouy M, Higgins DG, Gibson TJ (1998) Multiple sequence alignment with Clustal X. Trends in Biochemical Sciences 23(10): 403–405. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0968-0004(98)01285-7
- Jocqué R, Alderweireldt M (2005) Lycosidae: the grassland spiders. Acta Zoological Bulgarica Supplement 1: 125–130.
- Kalyaanamoorthy S, Minh BQ, Wong TKF, von Haeseler A, Jermiin LS (2017) ModelFinder: fast model selection for accurate phylogenetic estimates. Nature Methods 14(6): 587–589. https://doi.org/10.1038/nmeth.4285

- Karp AT, Andrae JW, McInerney FA, Polissar PJ, Freeman KH (2021) Soil carbon loss and weak fire feedbacks during Pliocene C4 grassland expansion in Australia. Geophysical Research Letters 48(2): 1–10. https://doi.org/10.1029/2020GL090964
- Kukla T, Rugenstein JKC, Ibarra DE, Winnick MJ, Strömberg CAE, Chamberlain CP (2022) Drier winters drove Cenozoic open habitat expansion in North America. AGU Advances 3(2): e2021AV000566. https://doi.org/10.1029/2021AV000566
- Linder H, Lehmann CE, Archibald S, Osborne CP, Richardson DM (2018) Global grass (Poaceae) success underpinned by traits facilitating colonization, persistence and habitat transformation. Biological Reviews 93(2): 1125–1144. https://doi.org/10.1111/brv.12388
- Lu J, Algeo TJ, Zhuang G, Yang J, Xiao G, Liu J, Huan J, Xie S (2020) The Early Pliocene global expansion of C4 grasslands: A new organic carbon-isotopic dataset from the north China plain. Palaeogeography, Palaeoclimatology, Palaeoecology 538: 109454. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.palaeo.2019.109454
- Magalhaes IL, Azevedo GH, Michalik P, Ramírez MJ (2020) The fossil record of spiders revisited: implications for calibrating trees and evidence for a major faunal turnover since the Mesozoic. Biological Reviews 95: 184–217. https://doi.org/10.1111/brv.12559
- Minh BQ, Nguyen MAT, von Haeseler A (2013) Ultrafast approximation for phylogenetic bootstrap. Molecular Biology and Evolution 30: 1188–1195. https://doi.org/10.1093/molbev/mst024
- Murphy NP, Framenau VW, Donnellan SC, Harvey MS, Park YC, Austin AD (2006) Phylogenetic reconstruction of the wolf spiders (Araneae, Lycosidae) using sequences from the 12S rRNA, 28S rRNA, and *NADH1* genes: Implications for classification, biogeography, and the evolution of web building behavior. Molecular Phylogenetics and Evolution 38: 583–602. https://doi.org/10.1016/j. ympev.2005.09.004
- Muster C, Berendonk TU (2006) Divergence and diversity: lessons from an arctic–alpine distribution (*Pardosa saltuaria* group, Lycosidae). Molecular Ecology 15(10): 2921–2933. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-294X.2006.02989.x
- Penney D (2001) Advances in the taxonomy of spiders in Miocene amber from the Dominican Republic (Arthropoda, Araneae). Palaeontology 44: 987–1009. https://doi.org/10.1111/1475-4983.00211
- Penney D (2006) The oldest fossil pholcid and selenopid spiders (Araneae) in Lowermost Eocene amber from the Paris Basin, France. Journal of Arachnology 34: 592–598. https://doi.org/10.1636/H05-61.1
- Piacentini LN, Ramírez MJ (2019) Hunting the wolf: A molecular phylogeny of the wolf spiders (Araneae, Lycosidae). Molecular Phylogenetics and Evolution 136: 227–240. https://doi.org/10.1016/j. ympev.2019.04.004
- Posada D (2008) jModelTest: phylogenetic model averaging. Molecular Biology and Evolution 25: 1253–1256. https://doi.org/10.1093/molbev/msn083
- Rambaut A, Drummond AJ (2009) Tracer v1.5. http://beast.bio.ed.ac.uk/Tracer
- Ree RH, Smith SA (2008) Maximum likelihood inference of geographic range evolution by dispersal, local extinction, and cladogenesis. Systematic Biology 57(1): 4–14. https://doi.org/10.1080/10635150701883881

- Renner SS (2005) Relaxed molecular clocks for dating historical plant dispersal events. Trends in Plant Science 10: 550–558. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tplants.2005.09.010
- Richter CJJ (1970) Aerial dispersal in relation to habitat in eight wolf spider species (*Pardosa*, Araneae, Lycosidae). Oecologia 5: 200–214. https://doi.org/10.1007/BF00344884
- Roslin T, Somervuo P, Pentinsaari M, Hebert PDN, Agda J, Ahlroth P, Anttonen P, Aspi J, Blagoev G, Blanco S, Chan D, Clayhills T, deWaard J, deWaard S, Elliot T, Elo R, Haapala S, Helve E, Ilmonen J, Hirvonen P (2022) A molecular-based identification resource for the arthropods of Finland. Molecular Ecology Resources 22(2): 803–822. https://doi.org/10.1111/1755-0998.13510
- Samu F, Szinetár C (2002) On the nature of agrobiont spiders. Journal of Arachnology 30: 389–402. https://doi.org/10.1636/0161-8202(2002)030[0389:OTNOAS]2.0.CO;2
- Sanmartín I, Enghoff H, Ronquist F (2001) Patterns of animal dispersal, vicariance and diversification in the Holarctic. Biological Journal of the Linnean Society 73(4): 345–390. https://doi.org/10.1006/bijl.2001.0542
- Schubert M, Marcussen T, Meseguer AS, Fjellheim S, Jordan G (2019) The grass subfamily Pooideae: The grass subfamily Pooideae: Cretaceous—Palaeocene origin and climate-driven Cenozoic diversification. Global Ecology and Biogeography 28(8): 1168—1182. https://doi.org/10.1111/geb.12923
- Strömberg CAE (2011) Evolution of grasses and grassland ecosystems. Annual Review Earth Planetary Sciences 39: 517–544. https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev-earth-040809-152402
- Strömberg CAE, Staver AC (2022) The history and challenge of grassy biomes. Science 377(6606): 592–593. https://doi.org/10.1126/science.add1347
- Trifinopoulos J, Nguyen LT, von Haeseler A, Minh BQ (2016) W-IQ-TREE: a fast online phylogenetic tool for maximum likelihood analysis. Nucleic Acids Research 44: 232–235. https://doi.org/10.1093/nar/gkw256
- Vink CJ, Mitchell AD, Paterson AM (2002) A preliminary molecular analysis of phylogenetic relationships of Australasian wolf spider genera (Araneae, Lycosidae). Journal of Arachnology 30: 227–237. https://doi.org/10.1636/0161-8202(2002)030[0227:APMAOP]2.0. CO;2
- Vogel BR (1964) A taxonomic revision of the *distincta* group of the wolf spider genus *Pardosa* in America north of Mexico (Araneida, Lycosidae). Postilla 82: 1–30.
- Vogel BR (1970) Taxonomy and morphology of the *sternalis* and *falcifera* species groups of *Pardosa* (Araneida, Lycosidae). Armadillo Papers 3: 1–31.
- Vogel BR (2004) A review of the spider genera *Pardosa* and *Acantholycosa* (Araneae, Lycosidae) of the 48 contiguous United States. Journal of Arachnology 32(1): 55–108. https://doi.org/10.1636/H03-8
- Woolley C, Thomas CFG, Blackshaw RP, Goodacre SL (2016) Aerial dispersal activity of spiders sampled from farmland in southern England. Journal of Artachnology 44: 347–358. https://doi.org/10.1636/P15-56.1
- World Spider Catalog (2024) World Spider Catalog. Version 25.0. Natural History Museum Bern. [online at] http://wsc.nmbe.ch [accessed on May 10, 2024]

- Wunderlich J (2004a) Proof of presence of the family Lycosidae (Araneae) in Baltic and Dominican amber. In: Wunderlich J (Ed.) Beiträge zur Araneologie 3: 1557–1558.
- Wunderlich J (2004b) Fossil spiders (Araneae) of the family Oxyopidae in Baltic and Dominican amber. Beiträge zur Araneologie 3: 1554–1556.
- Wunderlich J (2004c) Fossil crab spiders (Araneae, Thomisidae) in Baltic and Dominican amber. Beiträge zur Araneologie 3: 1747–1760.
- Yu Y, Harris AJ, He XJ (2010) S-DIVA (Statistical Dispersal-Vicariance Analysis): a tool for inferring biogeographic histories. Molecular Phylogenetics and Evolution 56(2): 848–850. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ympev.2010.04.011
- Yu Y, Harris AJ, Blair C, He XJ (2015) RASP (Reconstruct Ancestral State in Phylogenies): a tool for historical biogeography. Molecular Phylogenetics and Evolution 87: 46–49. https://doi.org/10.1016/j. ympev.2015.03.008
- Zachos J, Pagani M, Sloan L, Thomas E, Billups K (2001) Trends, rhythms, and aberrations in global climate 65 Ma to present. Science 292: 686–693. https://doi.org/10.1126/science.1059412
- Zehethofer K, Sturmbauer C (1998) Phylogenetic relationships of Central European wolf spiders (Araneae, Lycosidae) inferred from 12S ribosomal DNA sequences. Molecular Phylogenetics and Evolution 10(3): 391–398. https://doi.org/10.1006/mpev.1998.0536
- Zwickl DJ, Hillis DM (2002) Increased taxon sampling greatly reduces phylogenetic error. Systematic Biology 51(4): 588–598. https://doi.org/10.1080/10635150290102339

Supplementary material 1

Supporting information

Authors: Lijuan Liu, Dan Fu, Yufa Luo

Data type: docx

Explanation note: **table S1.** Samples used in this study: taxon name, specimen voucher, sample collection locality, habitat, and GenBank accession numbers. table S2. Primer sequences and annealing temperatures used in this study. table S3. Parameters of the best-fitting substitution model for each codon base or gene partition selected under the Bayesian information criterion (BIC). table S4. The details and assignments of the calibration points used in BEAST analyses. fig. S1. Global distribution for the main clades/groups of the Pardosa spiders. fig. S2. Phylogenetic tree of 133 Pardosa species reconstructed using the Bayesian method. The numbers at the nodes represent posterior probabilities. **fig. S3.** Biogeographical reconstruction from statistical dispersal-vicariance analysis (S-DIVA) (a), and dispersal-extinction-cladogenesis (DEC) (b) from RASP v3.0. Colors of pie wedges at each node represent geographical areas inferred to have been occupied by ancestral taxa. The numbers at the nodes represent support.

Copyright notice: This dataset is made available under the Open Database License (http://opendatacommons. org/licenses/odbl/1.0/). The Open Database License (ODbL) is a license agreement intended to allow users to freely share, modify, and use this Dataset while maintaining this same freedom for others, provided that the original source and author(s) are credited.

Link: https://doi.org/10.3897/zse.100.128885.suppl1